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THE NOVEMBER COVER—An Indiana State Teachers College Student, Miss Evelyn Spake, symbolizes the spirit of research.

—The photograph is used through the courtesy of Sycamore Yearbook.



The *Teachers College Journal*

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Unselected Admissions and College Standards

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Indiana State Teachers College, in common with most tax supported colleges in the United States, has followed the practice of admitting any graduate of an accredited high school. This practice conformed to the prevailing concepts of democracy—the equality of opportunity and the freedom of individual choice.

Once enrolled, however, the student soon learns, as he does in any other endeavor in a democracy, that "equality of opportunity and freedom of choice" are not mathematically equal to successful accomplishment. He soon learns that an accredited college has academic standards by which his progress as a student is measured. The formula for academic achievement reads more like this: (1) abstract intelligence + (2) high school achievement + (3) motivation + (4) time devoted to study + (5) methods of study = college achievement.

If any one of the five resources listed in the formula above vary by an appreciable amount, the resulting achievement will vary in the same direction. The student soon learns that if he does not have the resources to meet the academic standards of the college, or does not use effectively the resources he has, his continued enrollment in the college will be interrupted. Thus, when the surviving members of an entering class, unselectively admitted, are graduated four years later, only about 40 per cent have reached that goal. Can such tremendous losses be justified? Can they be reduced? Can college standards be maintained under the pressure of so many sub-standard achievements?

Here is posed a confusing dilemma between democratic ideals on the one hand and college standards of education on the other. Can some educational policy be discovered and administered which resolves this dilemma, without being

disloyal to either concept and with a minimum of distress, disillusionment, and disappointment to the students themselves? Yes! It can be done by recognizing two standards by which to measure the achievement of a student, (1) his own level of ability and (2) requirements for graduation, and by a counseling and orientation system that acquaints him with all factors in the formula and which encourages their harmonious use.

As long ago as the year 1927-28 the writer undertook a project directed toward the solution of this dilemma.¹ That project undertook to measure certain resources of the student indicative of his college ability and to so counsel and aid him in the adjustment of his time and the use of those resources that each student would achieve an academic record in line with his level of ability. The project involved a comprehensive testing program of both aptitude and pre-college training, an estimated level of learning (or predicted index) based on the tests, a required one-hour course in study methods for one semester, a comparison of achievement as reported by instructors at the 4th, 9th, 18th, 27th, and 36th weeks, and such assistance as the college could offer to aid the student in relief from overload on his time, financial aid, health and housing services, vocational reorientation, and personal counseling. Here the first standard of achievement was not in terms of graduation level but in terms of the student's level of ability.

If a student performing at or above his own natural, normal level of learn-

ing over a considerable period of time is unable to meet the second standard—the standards established by the college for continuation and graduation—and if the counseling he has received has been realistic, honest, and considerate, there should be no feeling of humiliation on his part or of embarrassment to the college if his further enrollment is not allowed. It should then be obvious that a second choice of a career that does not require a college education is in the offing. Here vocational testing and reorientation counseling are important services for the college to offer the student. If sufficient time² has been allowed for the student (and his parents) to feel that he has had a fair trial at college, his separation from the college and launching out on a new endeavor comes as easily to him and, in most cases, as voluntarily as any other decision which his experience in a democracy has conditioned him to take.

²At Indiana State we allow sufficient time (see "b" below) through our standards published in the annual catalog and the 1957 Freshman Orientation Bulletin.

Standards required for continuation and graduation.

The following grades are recorded upon the completion of a course:

- "A"—excellent and gives 4 points
- "B+"—superior and gives 3½ points
- "B"—superior and gives 3 points
- "C+"—fair and gives 2½ points
- "C"—fair and gives 2 points
- "D+"—poor and gives 1½ points
- "D"—poor and gives 1 point
- "F"—failure and gives 0 points

To continue in Indiana State Teachers College, a student must meet the quantitative and qualitative standards indicated below:

a. **Quantitative standard:** A student who does not make passing grades in three-fourths of his approved schedule in any given term shall be discontinued automati-

¹Lonzo Jones, "A Project in Student Personnel Service Designed to Facilitate Each Student's Achievement at the Level of his Ability," *University of Iowa Studies; Studies in Education*. (November 1, 1928).

For some years at Indiana State Teachers College we have been estimating the level of learning of each Freshman based on tests administered during Freshman Week. These estimates are expressed in terms of a point-hour ratio as defined in Footnote 2. These estimated ratios, listed under column headed "Pred." in Table 1, are given to the Freshman Counselors in the early weeks of the Fall quarter. These constitute a focal point by which the student's progress is judged when midterm grades and quarterly grades are turned in by the instructors.³ A typical counselor's summary sheet is shown in Table 1.

In Column 1 is the student's rank in his high school graduating class converted into a percentile. In Column 2 is inserted the student's percentile rank on the American Council Psychological Examination (national norms). Column 3 represents a composite percentile averaged from the student's scores on 4

cally unless re-admitted as provided in "c" below.

b. Qualitative standard: The qualitative standard shall be computed on work attempted and on a cumulative basis. A student, to continue in college, must meet the following graduated scale of cumulative point-hour ratios: .75, 1.00, 1.25, 1.45, 1.60, and 1.80 at the end of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, and 6th quarters respectively, or be discontinued, unless re-admitted as provided below.

For admission to the senior division, the cumulative point-hour ratio shall be 1.80 or above. For graduation the point-hour ratio shall be 2.00 or above.

Any student may repeat any course on his own initiative regardless of the grade recorded. The last grade earned will be accepted for credit and the previous mark will be cancelled. Both the original grade and the new one will appear on the student's permanent record, but only the latter one will be computed for academic progress or graduation.

c. When the grades are in, the Registrar will withhold all trial programs for students below the standards listed above. The student will be notified by letter (either mailed, or handed to him in registration line) of his status. It shall also advise him that he may initiate plans with the Coordinator of Student Personnel for continuation on probation.

³Lonzo Jones, "It Pays to Investigate," *Teachers College Journal*, XXII, 54-56, (December, 1950).

achievement tests administered during orientation week in (a) English (b) social studies (c) science and (d) reading ability.

The student's predicted point-hour ratio based on an average of these three columns, is shown in the fourth column and the earned ratios for the various counseling periods are shown in the next four columns. In practice, whenever a student's achievement for a given period falls more than 40 points below the predicted ratio his name is starred to signal the need of diagnostic counseling.

The question arises from time to time as to the adequacy of these predictions. Are they reliable enough to justify advice or action in the case of a student who performs below them? Logically, it would seem that, other things being equal, (1) dependable measure of native intelligence combined with (2) trustworthy measurements of previous learning would yield a dependable basis for predicting future achievement. Some of the "other things" which may or may not be equal from student to student and for which we do not have objective measuring devices are: (3) motivation, (4) time devoted to study, (5) methods of study. These may be and probably are fairly well represented in the student's rank in his high school graduating class (Table 1, Column 1).

Likewise individual problems which interfere with a student's college work and may even cause him to drop out of college before the year is over cannot be foreseen, measured, or weighted into these predictions. Such problems as health failure, troubles at home, financial need, love affairs, tendencies to worry (which completely overwhelm a student when they strike unexpectedly) cannot be foreseen.

At any rate, in the Fall of 1953, we made our predictions or estimates in terms of the measures represented in Columns 2 and 3 of Table 1. A correlation between these predictions and the student's achievement while he was in college (one, two, or all three quarters) was computed for all the beginning Freshmen assigned to counselors in the Fall Term of 1953. The results are shown in Table II.

It is obvious from Table II that some factor, to which we will refer later, that is not immediately apparent is working selectively in favor of the women students to produce both a higher point-hour ratio in relationship to prediction (average difference of .45 vs .13) and to yield a greater consistency of performance in relationship to prediction (correlation of .673 vs .518).

In advising with the counselors relative to a student's deviation from prediction, it appeared again and again that whenever a student's rank in his high school graduating class differed significantly either up or down from the predicted level that his achieved point-hour ratio tended to vary in the same direction. A sampling of 200 of these 435 Freshmen, taken alphabetically, who had completed one year of college and for whom we had the rank in high school graduating class supplied on the high school transcript, was taken in order to test the influence of this factor upon achievement. It was thought that whatever factors not measured in the tests administered during Freshman Week that had influenced a student's achievement during the four years in high school would still be operative in college. It is very possible that here is a good indicator of those variables of motivation, time devoted to study, and methods of study which are not fully represented in objective tests.

To test this theory the high school rank percentile (Column 1) was added to the average percentile on the objective tests (Columns 2 and 3) and the sum divided by three. Using this figure, a new prediction was made. The results of the correlation of this new prediction with the year's achievement are shown in Table III.

When we compare the data of these two tables, some very important changes are noted as a result of weighting in the high school rank in class:

1. The coefficient of correlation for the total sampling goes up from .606 in Table II to .72 in Table III; for women only, up from .673 to .744; and for men only, up from .518 to .54.

2. The mean prediction for the total sampling went up from 1.90 point-hour

TABLE I
COUNSELOR'S SUMMARY SHEET

Adviser _____		Date _____							
Student's Name	1*	2	3	Pred.	Mid.	1st	Quarters 2nd	3rd	Average
A	57	17	41	1.64	1.50	2.25	1.75	1.50	1.83 (from Science)
B	79	21	28	1.84	2.00	2.25	2.25	2.75	2.32
C	96	42	51	2.20	3.00	3.25	2.75	3.00	3.00
D	45	45	31	1.72	1.50	1.33	W	W	
E	87	71	47	2.40	2.50	2.75	2.50	2.50	2.58
F	48	68	68	2.16	2.00	2.25	1.50	2.33	2.03
G	57	39	37	1.80	2.12	2.12	1.60	2.40	2.04
H	36	19	27	1.20	1.00	1.50	1.75	2.00	1.75 (reduced to three classes)
I	24	92	79	2.28	2.50	3.25	3.25	3.00	3.17
J	81	50	69	2.36	2.75	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.00
K	63	19	19	1.56	2.25	1.75	1.75	1.75	1.75
L	65	42	43	2.00	.68	1.25	2.00	1.00	1.42
M	76	71	40	2.20	2.25	2.25	2.75	2.25	2.42
N	83	60	52	2.28	2.67	2.75	2.50		2.63 (two terms on'y)
O		53	48	2.00	1.78	2.25	2.25	2.75	2.42
P		72	81	2.72	2.25	2.50	3.00	3.64	3.15
Q		52	25	1.24	1.25	1.50			To Business Department
R (Transfer)	77	56	63	2.28	1.50	1.75	2.40	2.25	2.13
S	95	75	84	3.08	3.00	3.75	3.25	4.00	3.76
T	63	70	63	2.28	2.25	2.50	1.75	1.50	1.92
U	38	10	18	1.00	2.00	1.75	2.00	1.75	1.83
V	39	12	33	1.24	1.00	1.00	1.50		1.25 (two terms only)

* (1) H. S. Rank; (2) A.E.C. %ile; (3) Average of 4 Achievement Tests

TABLE II

	Men Only	Women Only	Total Class
Number	224	211	435
Mean Prediction	1.83	1.96	1.90
Mean Achievement	1.96	2.41	2.16
Average Difference	.13	.45	.26
S. D. of Prediction	± .52	± .52	± .49
S. D. of Achievement	± .64	± .61	± .65
Coefficient of Correlation	.518	.673	.606

ratio to 2.10; for women from 1.96 to 2.26; and for the men from 1.83 to 1.95.

3. In general the difference between mean prediction and mean achievement was reduced. The exception was in the case of men only, where dropping out those students who completed only one

or two quarters raised the mean achievement from 1.96 to 2.12.

4. It will be observed that again the coefficient of correlation indicates a much higher degree of **consistency of performance** in relationship to ability on the part of the women students— .744

vs .54. Is this a clue to what ails our Freshman men?

5. Again comparing women with men, the average psychological score is 4.9 centiles higher; average high school rank 22.3 centiles higher (74.6 vs 52.3); average prediction .31 point-hour ratio higher; average achievement .32 point-hour ratio higher.

6. The most significant difference appears in (1) high school rank (74.6 percentile vs 52.3) and correlation between predictions and achievement (.744 vs .54). Both of these point toward a **lower maturity level** of the Freshman men in comparison with the Freshman women.

7. We had scores on a social usage test for 99 of the men in this sampling and 98 of the women. This is a test which we have been administering during Freshman Week for the past five

TABLE III

	Men Only	Women Only	Total Sampling
Number	100	100	200
Mean Prediction	1.95	2.26	2.10
Mean Achievement	2.12	2.44	2.23
Average Difference	.17	.18	.13
S. D. of Prediction	$\pm .39$	$\pm .43$	$\pm .40$
S. D. of Achievement	$\pm .54$	$\pm .48$	$\pm .60$
Coefficient of Correlation	.54	.744	.72
Average H. S. Rank	52.3 %ile	74.6 %ile	63.4 %ile
Average A. C. E.	41 %ile	45.9 %ile	43.4 %ile

years. It is used as a basis of instruction in a one-hour non-credit course in Social Orientation. The distribution of these scores gives the following results: women range from a score of 58 to one of 148; men from 58 to 121. The women's average score is 108; **the men's average score is 90.6, or 17.4 points lower.** Only 11 women have scores below 88; 43 men score below that point. The women have 44 who scored above 112; the men only 5.

Since we may assume that both the men and women students come from approximately the same socio-economic levels, this difference of 17.4 points in their attention to and knowledge of social usages again points toward retardation in maturity on the part of Freshman men. Certainly this conclusion from all of these data—consistency of performance, rank in high school class, and scores on social usage test—is not out of harmony with the known facts of maturational rates of growth in girls and boys. Girls cover the pre-adolescent period of development in two years less time than do boys, and these data show that those who entered Indiana State in the Fall of 1953 exceeded the boys by 22.3 centiles in their own high school graduating classes, showed a score 17.4 points higher on a standardized social usage test, and by the end of their Freshman year had a performance record averaging .32 point-hour ratio higher and correlating with predictions at .744 vs. .54 for the men.

Yet with all of these evidences to the contrary, both in high school and during the first year in college, the boys are treated as though they were more mature than the girls. They carry a heavier extra-curricular program in high school; they have fewer home restraints and less social supervision; and when they arrive at college, no regulatory rules require them to be in their dormitories

in the evening or supervise their study hours. Perhaps it is time to recognize their relative immaturity and surround them with stabilizing regulations until they are more able to take over their own self-discipline.

Returning now to examine the scattergram for the correlation of the 200 considered in the sampling, we get the following results.

There were 142 Freshmen in this sampling of 200 who were predicted to earn a point-hour ratio of 1.90 or better (see Quadrant IV & Quadrant I). Of these, 118 (Quadrant I), or 83 percent, earned an average point-hour ratio for the year of 1.90 or better and 15 of the remaining 24 did not miss their own predictions as much as .40 points on a point-hour ratio scale of 4.00.

Quadrants I and II reveal that 145 of the 200 Freshmen **earned** a point-hour ratio during the year of 1.90 or better. As noted above, 118 of these (Quadrant I) were predicted to earn that amount, or 81 per cent. Twenty-seven, or 19 per cent, of the 145 were predicted within .40 points of their actual

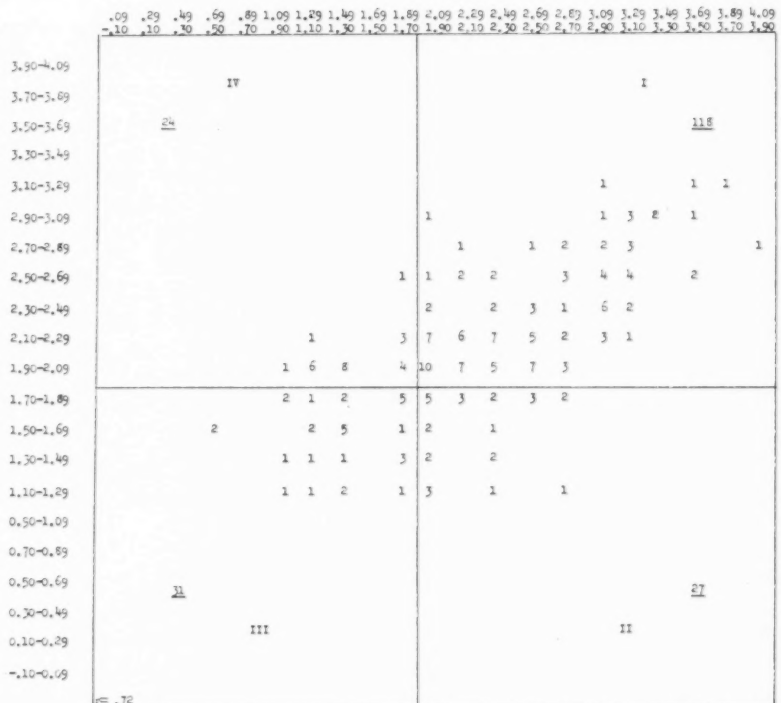


Figure 1. Scattergram showing correlation between predicted and achieved point-hour ratio for 200 freshmen.

earned index and 13 of the 27 were predicted between 1.70 and 1.89.

There were 38 in Quadrant I who earned an index of 2.90 or better (approximately a "B" average or above). Not one of these was predicted at less than 2.10 and only 12 at less than 2.50.

Fifty-five students earned less than an index of 1.90 (Quadrants III and IV), but 31 of these were predicted at less than 1.90 and 19 more at less than 2.10. This leaves only 5 students out of 55 (about 9 per cent) who earned less than 1.90 who had been predicted at more than 2.10. These data seem to justify the theory that Freshman students admitted unselectively can be identified, by means of the measures presented in this study, as potential survivors on the academic program. (1) The high school rank in the graduating class represents so many of the factors contributing to academic success that it was weighted in as equal in importance to (2) the percentile rank on the American Council Psychological Test and to (3) the average of four objective tests administered during Orientation Week. The formula 1 plus 2 plus 3 over 3 yielded a predicted point-hour ratio which in turn yielded a correlation with achievement of .72.

It does not seem wise to leave out the objective tests of high school achievement in making the predictions. When a prediction based on psychological percentile plus high school rank percentile was correlated with achieved grades, it yielded a coefficient for the

sampling of 200 students at .63 in contrast to .72 when the objective tests were left in. However, this is better than the correlation of .608 resulting from only our objective tests (Column 3) plus Column 2.

This study indicates how at least two improvements in our counseling and orientation program can be made:

1. We can improve our predictions over those of previous years by making use of the rank in high school graduating class.

2. We can take steps to help the Freshman men regulate their efforts in a way that will produce more consistent results.

This study reveals how it is possible under a policy of unselective admissions to maintain college standards—how it is possible to maintain high levels of achievement among the abler students without denying the less able their right to try for a college education. If a college launches on a program of selective admissions this study reveals a threshold below which denials may be made without seriously interfering with a potential achiever.

A glance at the scattergram reveals that 55 of the 200 did not earn a point-hour ratio equal to that required for graduation. Many of these never will. But, since our graduated scale of requirements for continuation permits a student to enroll for the second year with a point-hour ratio of 1.25 or above, nearly all of those would be entitled to begin the second year **if they so choose**

(only 8 have a point-hour ratio of 1.25). Many of these students on the borderline (and many of those above a "C" average, too) will voluntarily discontinue their college work after the Freshman year and turn to some job near at hand to earn a living. They will not regret having gone to college (in fact, may be proud of it) nor feel too badly that they did not do well enough to continue. It was one opportunity among the many that will come their way and their choice to attend and their decision to quit are only two of the many decisions they will expect to make as they meet the shifting scenes of a lifetime.

Some of these weak ones will want to continue, will find it hard to be realistic about their aptitudes and their achievements, and will not feel too good about college regulations that "denied them an education." Still others will seek vocational and educational reorientation and will follow the new leads with honest effort and rewarding results.

Thus it seems that, if unselective admissions are to be justified as a part of our democratic way of life, and if such a policy is not to reduce college standards, not to be wasteful of appropriated funds, and not to be still more profligate with the hopes and ideals and potentialities of its students, a college must devise and administer a testing, counseling, and orientation program that will recognize and promote each student's achievement in terms of his abilities.

Toward Greater Unity in Teacher Education

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The need for achieving greater unity of the total teacher education program has long been recognized. This recognition has resulted in action at the local level and in research efforts on a regional and national basis. Professional literature in this area reflects a variety of

concerns but two stand out above the rest. These are identified as unity of the professional and general education areas and the college and campus school relationship. They are not unrelated but main attention here will be devoted to the latter.

The role of the campus laboratory school* is a changing one and has under-

* The campus school is here defined as an elementary and/or secondary school closely affiliated with a teacher education institution. One of its purposes is to provide professional laboratory experiences for prospective teachers.

gone considerable revision since its beginning in this country in 1823. Then, as today, the purpose of relating theory and practice in teacher education was recognized, and observation, student teaching, and other laboratory experiences were carried out. For various reasons problems of institutional unity were less evident in those early days. Usually the laboratory school was housed in the same building as the college and very often was simplified by small enrollments and a limited curriculum.

The development of the laboratory school has closely paralleled that of the normal school and teachers college. Changes in the curriculum and the organization of the teacher-education program have been numerous and have involved both campus school and college teachers. With the growth and expansion of this program has come recognition of the need for better communication, cooperation, and integration of the teachers college and its affiliated campus school.

Today with enrollments rising in the teachers colleges and a pressing need for more good teachers for the public schools of the nation the need for unity of college and campus school increases. These higher enrollments in teachers colleges are also bringing pressures which are, in some instances, causing further change in the role of the campus school. Traditionally the campus school offered the prospective teacher opportunities for observation, participation and student teaching. Such opportunities are necessarily limited by the size of this school, and at many teacher-education institutions it has become necessary to provide more and more off-campus laboratory experiences. In some cases all of a certain type of laboratory experience, such as observation or student teaching, has been removed from the campus school to the public schools of the area. This does not mean less use of the campus school in the teacher-education program but increased use for selected experiences. Whatever the role of the campus laboratory school now and in the future, it must be an effective one to justify its place in the teacher-preparation

program. This effectiveness is now and will continue to be largely conditioned by the extent of unity of campus school and college.

What, then, are some of the problems and practices relating to the achievement of cooperative relationships between college and affiliated campus school? The author of this paper made a recent study of a number of teacher education institutions which maintain campus schools. Four broad problem areas bearing on the achievement of harmonious working relationships were identified.¹ The four problem areas are: (1) teaching load and lack of time; (2) failure on both sides to see the role of the other; (3) status problems; (4) lack of contact between staffs.

There is a definite relationship among all these problem areas, but for the sake of clarity it is well to consider each in turn.

Teaching load

The problem of teaching load and lack of time is not new but it is continuing and in some situations increasing. Indications are that the heavy instructional load and confining nature of the campus school instructor's work have bearing on this problem area. It is also true that adjustment of service load for those who teach mainly college classes must be considered if conferences, committee work and intervisitation experiences are to come about. In order to achieve the necessary coordination of effort that will result in unity there must be time for working together and for group action. Coordination of effort and programming make necessary certain individual and group responsibilities which in turn require the expenditure of time and energy. Hard-pressed and already over-burdened staff members will find insufficient time or energy regardless of good intentions and desire for improvement.

It would be an over-simplification of

the problem to suggest that colleges hire more instructors for both campus school and college. While efforts in this direction are being made, they are not wholly successful for various reasons. For the past several years administrators have found it increasingly difficult to obtain instructional personnel for some departments and divisions of the college and most notably the campus school. Some of the causes of this situation include a lack of adequately trained persons and the failure, in many instances, of salary schedules in teachers colleges to keep abreast of those in the public elementary and secondary schools. Predicted increases in the enrollment of institutions of higher education will probably mean aggravation of the situation as demands for instructional personnel increase.

Many methods of reducing staff teaching loads in the interest of increased efficiency have been and are being considered. Certain laboratory experiences now wholly or partially provided by the campus school may be turned over to the public schools of the service area, thus relieving some members of the campus school staff for important committee work and coordination efforts. Administrative organization must be examined with a view to increased coordination of effort and the establishment of committees which will function in the interest of unity.

Real unity of action and purpose can be based only on understandings which are achieved through mutual participation in the total teacher-training program. This means that the chairman of the department, the campus school principal, and other administrative officers can be successful in efforts toward greater unity only as they involve the total instructional personnel of the divisions or departments concerned. The intrinsic values upon which unification must be based cannot be mandated but must arise within the hearts and minds of staff members as a result of good group experiences.

Understanding

The second problem area, closely related to the one above, is lack of under-

¹Robert W. Saunders, "Interrelationships Between Laboratory Schools and Other Departments of Teachers Colleges," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, New York University, 1954. pp. 1-213.

standing each of the role of the other. Twenty-five per cent of the responses to the questionnaire sent out by Saunders indicated concern for the lack of understanding on the part of both the college staff and the campus school staff.²

If there is to be an actual integration of theory and practice, then mutuality of understanding is a prime requisite. This means that there must be a common philosophy and common objectives accepted and understood by the entire staff of the teacher education institution.

There are at least three major groups of educators involved in the teacher education program and each must understand the role of the others if unity and maximum effectiveness are to be achieved. The staffs of the general education and professional education departments must see themselves as co-workers with the campus school staff and with each other. It is especially pertinent that the education department of the college function jointly with the college campus school in the preparation of teachers. Whether the general education departments of the college make use of the services of the campus school or not, they need to understand its role just as the outfielder must know the role of the catcher in a smooth functioning ball team. If only one person or one department fails to understand the role of the other and his relationship to it, there is a breakdown of contact and communication which can have serious implications for the entire program. There is need for a meeting of the minds between subject-matter specialists and professional educators before progress toward unity can be made.

Participation in the development of philosophy and objectives is a first step but participation must go beyond this point. Campus school instructors can contribute to and support departmental and division goals only as they participate in group meetings where an interchange of ideas is possible. This is true of other groups involved, but it does

not mean that all staff members need attend each separate department meeting. It does mean wide use of representation and development of improved communication facilities. Committees may be formed which cut across departmental lines and have concern for a variety of problems. Isolation of staff groups or departments is not realistic when one considers the common goal of developing the best possible teachers for the public schools.

Curricular unity can be achieved only through group endeavor and faculty unity based upon mutual understanding. Cooperative action will allow each staff member to see the role of the other and gain appreciation of the contributions which others make. Within the education staffs of many teachers colleges are persons well suited to the tasks of the college classroom and the campus school classroom. Where staff members are qualified, an exchange of duties between those teaching in the campus school classroom and those teaching in the college may be very beneficial. Such an exchange of duties for a specific period of time will provide knowledge and understanding beyond that achieved by less direct methods. While it may seldom be possible for the general education staff members to perform such dual roles, they may function as consultants for the campus school and use the campus school facilities where possible. Such interchange of teaching roles and use of consultants would necessitate constant evaluation, and here again is an excellent opportunity for increased understanding through mutual participation.

Many ways of achieving better understanding need to be tried and tested. There are both limitations and opportunities which will vary from campus to campus but efforts made in the direction of better communication and participation are vital if the problem is to be solved.

Status

A third area of concern identified by the study dealt with status problems. Differences in the status or prestige of campus school teacher and college teacher appear to have come from many

sources, such as lack of promotional opportunity and differences in academic rank and salary between those who teach college classes and those who teach in the campus school classroom. In some teacher education institutions the education department staff members have, unfortunately, adopted a "big brother" attitude toward campus school staff members. In other instances the campus school has functioned as a separate and sovereign unit, bringing an unfortunate dichotomy of leadership to the educational institution.

While this picture of separate treatment for staff members in the same institution is changing it must be speeded up. The history of differences in academic rank and salary need no longer influence the position of the campus school teacher, for today's teachers have backgrounds of experience and advanced degrees similar to their colleagues in the college classroom. For the past decade or more administrative officials have sought instructors for the campus schools with rich backgrounds of experience and education. It is certainly illogical to believe that the teacher of children, especially the master teacher of the campus school, is less skilled or competent than the college instructor. Also to be remembered is the fact that the campus school instructor plays a dual role as he guides children and simultaneously guides the college student in a variety of educational experiences.

There is no place for a class system in the teachers college of today. Opportunities for committee work and leadership roles must be equally available for all staff members. Democratic leadership and operation of the teacher education institution will provide for recognition of all individual and group contributions.

Contact

The final problem area is directly related to those previously discussed. The reasons for lack of contact between staff members, particularly those of campus school and college, are many and varied. Administrative organization and the curriculum pattern of the institution are factors to be considered.

²Ibid., p. 172.

Channels of communication and participation opportunities are involved. For example, at some teachers colleges the campus school staff members attend the general faculty meetings, while at others they do not. Those colleges which have a four-year pattern of laboratory experiences involving the campus school increase the opportunity for professional contact of staff members. In some instances the building of a strong general education program and the abandonment of professionalized subject-matter courses has tended to break former contacts between general and professional education groups. This change was necessary and from it comes greater challenge to find new ways of working together and increased skill in group dynamics.

Some of the ways in which greater contact may be achieved are through

the committee organization of the college and democratic leadership. The committee organizational charts of some colleges reveal a type of grouping which cuts across departmental lines and brings together staff members from various departments and divisions. Working on committees concerned with broad institutional policies is a regular occurrence at some teachers colleges. Such committee work can be a strong unifying force especially where democratic leadership prevails. Relaxation of departmental lines and flexibility of organization increase opportunities for unity of action.

Summary

The achievement of a more effective institutional unity in the teachers college is not alone the concern of the administrator. It is a developmental

process calling for the expenditure of time and energy by all those concerned with the improvement of teacher education. The task of administration may be seen as one of providing opportunity and encouraging activity in the direction of institutional unity. Attention must be given to factors favoring group endeavor such as democratic organization, leadership, and group solidarity. On the part of all staff members there must be a willingness to experiment, to evaluate, and to grasp opportunities that lead toward cooperative unity. The roots of progress are embedded in the basic foundation of good human relationships. Where such relationships are strong a high degree of readiness is achieved. Progress may be slow and the effort expended may be great but the final goal is significant for it can mean a more effective teacher-education program.

Report of A Survey of High School Students' Use of Libraries

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With the approval of the Joint Committee on School Library Service, the Student Advisory Board of the Young Adult Room of the Evansville Public Library made a survey late in 1956 of high school students in the seven local (five public and two parochial) high schools on their use of libraries. This is the report of the information so gathered.

The Student Advisory Board is composed of two students, a junior and a senior, from each of the seven high schools. The survey was discussed and instructions given at the November, 1956 meeting of the Board. During the month following that meeting, each member of the Board was to interview personally ten students from his school, picked at random, and to secure their answers to the questions on a mimeographed interview schedule. The Board members were asked to choose a diversified group of students to interview, but selection of the respondents was not

otherwise controlled. A total of 138 usable returns were secured by the beginning of January and are here analyzed.

The sample was tested for representativeness on three bases. The sample was compared with the universe on the basis of the distribution of totals among the seven schools; the chi square test of goodness of fit indicates that there are 18 chances out of 100 that the differences between the universe and the sample might arise from chance alone. When the universe and the sample were distributed by class or academic grade, the chances are 40 out of 100 that such differences as were found might arise by chance alone. In regard to sex, the chances are 13 out of 100 that sampling error alone could account for the observed differences.

While it is to be conceded that a less than 2% sampling (138 out of about 8400 students in the 7 high schools) is insufficient coverage from which to

draw conclusions, and that the interviewers were untrained and some of the questions were loosely phrased, the inferences to be drawn from the survey findings are worthy of some consideration.

The first main point to be seen in these data is that the students use their high school libraries more than they do the Young Adult Room at the Central Public Library. To the direct question as to which of the two libraries the students would turn first, the answer is clear; by a choice of almost 3 to 1, they turn to their high school library first. Of the reasons given for this choice, the most important by far was the greater convenience of the high school library. Of those who go to the Public Library first, the most important reason given is the better selection of materials. The high degree of satisfaction in and use of the high school libraries are also reflected in the fact that 41 per cent of all those polled say

they would use their high school library more if it were open longer hours.

A second main finding of these returns is that the Young Adult Room is certainly not the only Public Library agency to which these students turn. About half of those who use the Public Library at all go to one or another of its 10 branches; of the other half, who use the Central Public Library, almost a third go to the adult departments on the first floor of the building. Of the 45 students who go first to the YAR (on the third floor of the Central Library), 62 per cent come from two schools. Again "convenience" chiefly explains the choice of the branches; better selection, especially of reference books, explains the choice of the first floor departments; and the personal assistance and quality of the collection chiefly accounts for those who choose YAR first. All but 10 per cent of these students report that they usually get what they want when they go to the Public Library.

The third main inference to be drawn from this survey is that there is considerable need for more emphasis on instruction in the use of libraries. While two-thirds of the students said they know how to use a card catalog almost the same percentage said they would like to know more than they know now about how to locate a book or magazine or specific information in a library. The fact that one-third of the students say they do not know how to use the catalog is a matter for further inquiry, particularly since basic instruction in the use of the library is provided in each school in the English department program with cooperation of the high school librarian. In answer to the question, "Would you like to know more than you know now about how to locate a book or magazine or specific information in a library?", 63 per cent of the students polled said "Yes". This indicates a need for greater efficiency in the use of the larger resources of the Public Library, especially.

The present data allow for some interesting tests of the traditional theory that children will acquire the "library habit" if exposed to books early enough

and often enough, and that they will thereafter use books and libraries at least to a greater extent than people who were not so exposed. In our present study, information was secured as to the grammar school from which each student graduated, and as to whether he was taking a college preparatory course in high school or not. Eight of the 138 students had graduated from an elementary school not in this county, and these were omitted from the calculations below. Of the 130 students, 70 were taking college preparatory courses and 60 were not. Furthermore it is possible to say with a fair degree of accuracy what kind of library service has been available at each elementary school from which these 130 students graduated. There are 13 schools (from which 50 of these students entered high school) where there is a Public Library branch in the school or so near that it works closely with the school; these are called here the Type One schools. Eighty students came from 25 other elementary schools where library service has been limited to classroom sets from the Public Library; these are known here as Type Two schools.

It is now possible (as shown in Table I) to contrast the answers received on certain key questions from those students who went to elementary schools with and without "good" library service, with the answers from students who have presumably greater motivation to use books and libraries (in the college preparatory course) and lesser motivation (in the other courses of study). This pits the "library habit" theory against the theory that current needs and satisfactions determine use and non-use of books and libraries. Two assumptions at least should be noted. Freshmen and sophomores probably differ little in their actual studies, whether they are planning to go to college or not. Secondly, we are not taking account of how many years each student actually attended the elementary school from which he graduated (let alone measuring whether or not he personally ever used his elementary school library or acquired the "library habit"), but our data indicate that almost all of these 130

students attended the elementary school named for at least a year.

We compared the answers to the question, "Do you know how to use a library card catalog?" from those who are in the college preparatory course and those who are not. The chi square test shows that the chances are 6 out of 100 (with two degrees of freedom) that the differences shown might arise by random error alone. When we compared the answers to the same question again, but this time from those who went to Type One elementary schools and those who went to Type Two, the chi square test shows that there is less than one chance in a thousand that differences such as these could arise by random error alone. Apparently, knowledge of how to use a card catalog is a function of library use.

The same sort of analysis was made of the answers to the question, "When you want a book or magazine, or need to do some reference work, do you go to your high school library first or to the Public Library first?" The chances are less than one out of 1000 that the differences between those in the college preparatory course and the others might arise from random error alone, and 91 out of 100 in the case of the differences between those who went to Type One and to Type Two schools. It seems clear that the "library habit" does **not** lead to greater use of the public library than is true of those not exposed to the habit. But students in college preparatory courses apparently feel the need for the Public Library's greater collection of books significantly more often than do other students.

College preparatory students also differed significantly from other students in their use of the library facilities of their high school; there is less than one chance in 100 that the observed differences might occur from random error alone. There are 82 chances out of 100 that the differences in the use of the high school libraries, as reported by the graduates of Type One and Type Two elementary schools, might arise as a result of random error in the sampling process. When we come to the question,

TABLE I

Comparison of Answers to Selected Questions (A) From Those Who Attended Type One and Type Two Elementary Schools, and (B) From Those Who Are and Who Are Not in College Preparatory Course.

Interview Question	Type of Response	Type One Schools	Type Two Schools	In College Preparatory Course	Not in College Preparatory Course
"Do you know how to use a Library Card Catalog?"	Yes No	41(82%) 9(18%)	51(64%) 29(36%)	53(76%) 17(24%)	39(65%) 21(35%)
"When you want a book or magazine, or need to do some reference work, do you go to your High School Library first or to the Public Library first?"	High School Library First: Public Library First: Used Neither:	35(71%) 14(29%) 1	57(73%) 21(27%) 2	43(62%) 26(38%) 1	49(84%) 9(16%) 2
"Approximately how often do you use your High School Library for books or other library service?"	Daily or Weekly: Monthly or Annually: Never:	21(42%) 26(52%) 3(6%)	38(48%) 37(46%) 5(6%)	36(51%) 28(40%) 6(9%)	23(38%) 35(58%) 2(4%)
"Approximately how often do you use the Young Adult Room at Central Library (for books or other library service)?"	Daily or Weekly: Monthly or Annually: Never:	7(14%) 19(38%) 24(28%)	8(10%) 50(62%) 22(28%)	10(14%) 39(56%) 21(30%)	5(8%) 30(50%) 25(42%)

"Approximately how often do you use the Young Adult Room at Central Library?", the differences between college preparatory and non-college preparatory students are without statistically significant difference (less than one chance out of 100 that it can be accounted for

by random error) between the reported frequency of use of the Young Adult Room by students exposed to the "library habit" and those not exposed, but it is the latter and not the former who use the Room more.

So far as these data are concerned,

it appears that elementary school libraries are to be justified for their own sake and for what they can contribute to elementary school students *per se* and *not* for what they might do in giving them the library habit and making future public patrons of them as adults.

The Status of Practices in Correspondence Study in Teacher Colleges

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During the fall of 1956, a questionnaire concerning the practices in the conduct of correspondence study for college credit was mailed to all members of the Association for Field Services in Teacher Education who are all institutional members of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Questionnaires were also sent to representative teachers colleges in every state and to a few schools of education

in representative universities. Responses were received from fifty-four institutions.

Twenty-six of the responding colleges and universities from fifteen states offer correspondence study courses for undergraduate credit and their answers to a study of practices concerning correspondence study form the basis for the information contained in this report.

Twenty-eight other colleges which re-

sponded offer no correspondence study courses. Such colleges seem to be located in certain states where there may be a state policy on the subject. Illinois, New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts appear to be examples of this.

Twenty-five colleges and universities offer courses in a range of 4 to 35 college departments with an average number for each college of courses in 12 different departments. One college of-

ferred graduate credit by correspondence through television only. Such courses are in the field of English and are the only correspondence courses offered by the college. As this report is concerned with policies in general, no figures were secured on the total number of courses offered by the various institutions, but the figures are probably in harmony with the number of departments in each college that offers courses.

Fifteen of the colleges surveyed offer one or more methods courses by correspondence while eleven offer no methods courses by correspondence study. Methods courses which were given by the fifteen colleges include:

General Methods, Elementary (6)
Language Arts (4)
Elementary Social Studies (2)
Elementary Arithmetic
General Methods, High School (5)
High School English (4)
High School Social Studies (2)
High School Physical Education (2)
Elementary Music
Elementary Science
Elementary Speech
High School Speech
High School Music
High School Industrial Arts
High School, French-Latin-Spanish

The maximum time limits for correspondence study by the 26 colleges are listed below:

16 Colleges—1 year time limit
3 colleges—1 year with 6 months extension
2 colleges—1½ years
2 colleges—9 months
2 colleges—2 years
1 college—3 years

The minimum time limits for correspondence study by the 26 colleges are listed below:

6 colleges: 1 semester (or credit hour) per week
5 colleges: 1 month
4 colleges: 8 weeks
2 colleges: 2 weeks
2 colleges: 5 weeks for 3 semester hours
1 college: 15 days per semester hour
1 college: twice as many weeks as quarter hours in course
1 college: number of weeks as number of hours in course
1 college: 3 months
3 colleges: no answer

The following schedule shows the fees paid by the student to enroll in correspondence work in the 26 colleges:

Quarter hour colleges:

3 colleges: \$6.00 per quarter hour (1 college with \$2.00 matriculation fee on first course)
2 colleges: \$5.00 per quarter hour
2 colleges: \$5.75 per quarter hour
1 college: \$7.50 per quarter hour
1 college: \$9.00 per quarter hour

Semester hour colleges:

4 colleges: \$5.00 per semester hour
3 colleges: \$11.00 per semester hour
2 colleges: \$10.00 per semester hour
2 colleges: \$4.00 per semester hour
2 colleges: \$4.00 per semester hour plus \$2.00 registration fee
1 college: \$10.40 per semester hour
1 college: \$7.50 per semester hour
1 college: \$7.50 per semester hour for residents; \$12.00 per semester hour for non-residents of state
1 college: \$8.00 per semester hour for residents; \$10.00 per semester for non-residents of state
1 college: \$7.00 per semester hour

Nineteen of the 26 colleges furnish the complete outline for the correspondence when the student enrolls. Six other procedures listed by the other six colleges were: (1) one-fourth at a time; (2) three lessons upon enrollment, three to six as finished; (3) three upon enrollment, more as needed; (4) one-half on enrollment, one-half when completed; (5) three at a time; (6) sent as needed.

Fourteen colleges do not require correspondence study outlines to be returned either upon completion or withdrawal; 5 colleges ask students who withdraw from a course to return the outline; 6 colleges ask that all outlines be returned; 1 college indicates to each student whether outline is to be returned or kept.

The correspondence students of 16 of the surveyed colleges keep their lessons after grading; 9 colleges do not return the lessons to the students or the student must return his graded lessons before writing the final examination; 1 college indicates in specific cases whether the student may keep papers or return them to the correspondence study office.

Campus resident students are permitted to enroll in correspondence courses in 20 of the colleges surveyed. Condi-

tions under which students might enroll were: (1) with the permission of the Dean of the College; (2) a part-time student as a part of regular load; (3) graduating seniors only; (4) subject to overload permission; (5) course not offered on campus; (6) permission of registrar.

The amount of correspondence study credit which may be applied toward a degree at the surveyed colleges is as follows:

13 colleges: one-fourth of total hours (48 quarter hours or 30 semester hours)
4 colleges: 15 semester hours
2 colleges: 32 semester hours
1 college: 30 quarter hours
1 college: 24 quarter hours
1 college: 18 semester hours
1 college: 6 courses only
1 college: 30% of total hours
1 college: 2 years
1 college: 6 semester hours

Other restrictions for licenses were listed by various state regulations as Indiana—12 hours in high school subject groups, 8 hours in professional subjects up to one-fourth of total. Central Michigan offers no correspondence for securing a permanent certificate—7 of 62 hours for limited license and 15 of 124 hours for provisional license. Texas offers 50% of work by correspondence for certificates—total hours needed not given.

All 26 colleges agree that correspondence courses should be prepared by regular resident faculty who teach the same courses on campus with the selection of such faculty being made by department chairmen or dean of the college.

The form and number of correspondence study lessons are regulated in 22 of the colleges surveyed. Typical methods of regulation are listed below:

8 colleges: 8 lessons per semester hour
3 colleges: 6 lesson assignments plus exam per semester hour
3 colleges: prepared formats for faculty
2 colleges: 5 assignments per semester hour
2 colleges: 1 week campus work for 1 lesson assignment
1 college: suggest 12 lessons for a 4 quarter hour course
1 college: 10 assignments per semester hour

The colleges are in agreement that regular resident faculty should grade

and mark papers and examinations for correspondence students, selection being made by department chairmen or dean of the college.

A mark or grade is given to each lesson of correspondence study when graded by instructors of 20 of the 26 colleges. Six of the colleges indicate that a grade is not required or is optional on the part of the instructor. All the colleges but one make marginal comments and criticism on the original correspondence lessons. In one college, the lessons are not returned—only a correction and criticism sheet. Other forms of criticism or suggestions are made by various colleges in the form of criticism sheets, letters, and progress reports accompanying the return of the original lesson.

In the taking of final examinations, all colleges permit students to write the examinations in the correspondence study office. Five of the colleges surveyed permit the exam to be written off campus only in college offices of state colleges or other college officials. Nineteen colleges give permission to superintendents and other school administrators approved by the correspondence office to supervise examinations. In one case, ministers were permitted to administer final examinations. One college has regular approved regional supervisors throughout their state. Principals who supervise examinations are usually limited to four-year high school licensed principals.

Twenty-three of the colleges do not return the final examination after marking and grading; the other three colleges have an optional policy for individuals. The filing policy of final examinations of the colleges is given below:

- 8 colleges: file examination—no time indicated
- 6 colleges: file examination for short time
- 4 colleges: not filed
- 2 colleges: file on failure only
- 1 college: file year or over
- 1 college: teacher's option

The schedule of remuneration for the preparation of correspondence study outlines follows:

- 11 colleges: no fee for preparation
- 5 colleges: \$50.00 per semester hour (\$150.00 three hour course)
- 2 colleges: \$100.00 per credit hour
- 2 colleges: \$12.00 per course
- 1 college: \$15.00 per course
- 1 college: \$25.00 per credit hour
- 1 college: \$35.00 per three-hour course
- 1 college: 50c per lesson
- 1 college: \$25.00 per course

The payment for grading of lessons and courses is varied among the colleges. Three colleges pay \$6.00 per semester hour; two colleges pay \$15.00 per course. Other payments given were \$10.00 for completed course; 33 and one-third cents per lesson; \$3.00 per semester hour completed, 50c unfinished; one-half of registration fee; \$5.00 per semester hour; \$17.50 each course; \$12.00 per course; \$1.00 per hour (time) or 40c per lesson; \$2.40 semester hour; 90c per lesson; \$7.50 per semester hour; 40c to 50c per lesson; 25c per lesson; \$1.00 per lesson; 30c per lesson; \$1.50 per lesson; 75c to 80c per lesson; 37½c per lesson. One college charged \$7.50 for supervision of a final examination on Saturday.

Sixteen of the twenty-six colleges set no limit on the number of students by correspondence that may be assigned to an instructor teaching a normal campus load. Ten colleges set a limit by methods listed below:

- 720 lessons or 30 enrolled per semester
- 10 enrollments (2 colleges)
- \$900.00 per semester in earnings
- \$500.00 per year in earnings
- 50 enrollments
- 666 lessons
- \$750.00 annually
- 15 active students during any 30 days or 20 enrolled
- \$25.00 or 66 per month
- Designated by department chairman

Three colleges have equated correspondence students to teaching one college class or one extension as follows:

- 300 papers equal one three-hour class
- 15 students equal one class
- 666 lessons equals one class

The following schedule shows the number of colleges in each grouping of correspondence enrollments per year:

Year's enrollment	Number of colleges
0—500	11
500—750	4
750—1000	3
1000—1500	3
1500—3000	1
3000—4000	2
4000—5000	1
No report	1

Fourteen colleges report that their enrollments are increasing; nine report that their enrollments are about static in number while three said their enrollment was decreasing and one college is dropping all correspondence study courses.

By way of summary, the following observations are offered: Probably half of the teachers' colleges offer correspondence study courses for undergraduate credit prepared and evaluated by regular faculty members. The amount of correspondence study credit applicable toward a bachelor's degree is most frequently 25 per cent of the total, but varies from 5 per cent to 50 per cent. Professional methods courses in specific subject matter areas are infrequent by correspondence; general methods in the elementary or high school field are slightly more frequent. There is a wide variation in time limits, but the median maximum is one year of any course. Minimum times reported are too variable to give a significant median. The average enrollment fees are \$6.25 per quarter hour and \$7.40 per semester hour. The range in both cases is quite wide, however. There seems to be no significant consensus on equating any correspondence study load to other instructional load units, nor does the extra remuneration to faculty members for this work take any recognizable pattern. The routine practices in administering correspondence study vary widely, but each school has quite definitely established practices which may suit local prevailing conditions. The chief areas of common concern are in the evaluation of the quality of student work and the load of instructors.

A Comparative Study of Reading Growth: Enriched Versus a Limited Program of Instruction

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The accompanying article is an abstract of Dr. McDaniel's Doctoral Dissertation completed at Indiana University, 1957.

Purpose of the study. The purpose of this study was to compare reading achievement at third- and sixth-grade levels in situations where contrast in instruction is characterized in one instance by use of limited materials and in the other by use of a variety of materials.

Some specific questions which might be answered in this study are:

1. In which program is reading comprehension taught most effectively?

2. Under which plan of instruction will children's vocabularies develop most extensively?

3. Within which program of instruction will the following work-study skills be developed most effectively?

a. map reading, b. use of references, c. use of index, d. use of dictionary, e. alphabetization (third grade), f. use of graphs, charts, and tables (sixth grade).

Procedure. Children who were taught in a situation where a single basal reading series was used where compared to children taught in an enriched program where a variety of basal readers and supplementary books were used.

Children in each situation were tested for intelligence and reading levels by use of the California Test of Mental Maturity and the Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills, Tests A and B, Form N. Children from the two groups were matched on the basis of initial reading scores, intelligence quotient, age sex, and grade. Retesting after six months was accomplished through use of the

Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills, Form O, and comparative gains established between the two groups.

Conclusions. The findings of this study are such as to lend support to the hypothesis that children who are taught in classrooms where there is use of a wide variety and range of materials will read more competently in terms of skills tested than children who receive instruction in classrooms where the use of materials is limited to one basal reader with the accompanying manual and workbook.

Certain conclusions seem tenable concerning the results of this study.

Development of vocabulary at the third-grade level appears to be favorably affected by the enriched program.

The teaching of reading comprehension at the sixth-grade level seems favorably affected by the use of a variety of materials. Boys of the experimental group achieved greater gains at both the third and sixth-grade levels in reading comprehension.

Map reading at the sixth-grade level is significantly affected by the use of a variety of materials.

Use of references appears to be favorably affected by the enriched program of instruction at both the third and sixth-grade levels.

Teaching use of the dictionary seems to be more successfully accomplished through the use of a variety of materials.

Use of graphs, charts, and tables at the sixth-grade level seems to be affected favorably by the use of a variety of materials.

Comparison of total gains in the whole area of work-study skills indicates superior gains by the children who are taught in the enriched program.

It seems justifiable to state that children who are taught in a program where a variety of materials is used will achieve greater competency in the skills that were tested in this study than children whose program of reading is limited to one basal reader, the manual, and workbook.

Editor's Note: The present emphasis on research in all areas of technology intensifies the need for research in the social sciences. Technological research is not primarily concerned with human values. In contrast, research in the social sciences is rooted in human values. In order to use effectively and to enjoy the results of research in technology, we must increase our understanding of how human beings can use it in living and working and playing together in harmony.

Research in education, dealing as it does for the most part with human beings, makes a definite contribution to the whole body of social science. Intensified efforts to bring research to bear on critical problems in education is of no less importance than research to facilitate space travel. Boys and girls remain the major asset of any nation. Improving education's service to them is an important step toward national survival.

An Analysis of the Work of the First-Line Office Supervisor

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The accompanying article is an abstract of Dr. Steinbaugh's Doctoral Dissertation completed at The Ohio State University, 1957.

The successful application of scientific management methods in industry has brought with it an equal awareness of such a need in the office area. Although the importance of the first-line office supervisor's position has been readily recognized, little has been done to obtain a definite picture of his duties and responsibilities.

Management recognizes the first-line office supervisor as the individual most directly responsible for operating economy and efficiency in the office. Education is concerned because it must provide the first-line office supervisor with the skills and techniques which enable him to fulfill his responsibilities effectively.

Considerable research has been directed toward the position of the office manager; however, relatively little has been done with regard to the first-line office supervisor. Unlike his industrial counterpart, the factory foreman, the first-line office supervisor has been

largely passed over by researchers. It is believed, therefore, that a detailed analysis of the work of the first-line office supervisor would be of value to both business administration and business education.

The present investigation was undertaken (1) to determine the characteristics of the first-line office supervisory position (size of company, size of office, salary, area supervised, job title, lines of promotion, title of superior, span of control; (2) to determine the personal background of the first-line office supervisor (age, sex, experience in present position, experience with present employer, total office experience, and educational background; (3) to determine the activities most frequently performed by the first-line office supervisor and the approximate amount of time given to each activity; (4) to determine the qualifications of the position deemed important by the supervisors, the factors most frequently influencing the selection of office supervisors, and the problems faced by them; (5) to compare the position and activities of the college trained office supervisor with those of the high school-trained office

supervisor; and (6) to determine the role of educational institutions in providing training for the position.

An analysis of the responsibilities and duties of the first-line office supervisor as indicated by current literature provided the basis for a questionnaire. To test the effectiveness of the instrument, a pilot survey of ten first-line office supervisors was made. Names of 500 first-line office supervisors were obtained through the Ohio Chapters of the National Office Management Association. Data collected from 180 of these respondents served as the basis of this study.

The findings regarding the characteristics of the position are too numerous to appear in an abstract. The following conclusions, however, may be made regarding the first line supervisor: (1) The areas supervised were numerous and diverse. (2) Supervisors performed a great variety of activities each of which required only a small percentage of their time. (3) They spent very little time performing operative activities. (4) The majority started their careers as operative employees. (5) Past performance as an operative employee was the most important single factor in their selection for the position. (6) They considered the ability to work effectively with others the most important qualification for their position. (7) Opportunities for men to become first-line office supervisors were greater than for women. (8) In general, salaries were higher and advancement was more rapid for the first-line office supervisors who had college training.

Abstracts of Theses

Gardner, Dorothy Greene. **The Development of the Techniques of Vitreous Enameling.** May, 1957. 142 pp. No. 733.

Problem. The purpose of this study was to (1) review the historical development of the traditional techniques of vitreous enameling, (2) describe these

enamel techniques without becoming technical, (3) characterize the part color has played in vitreous enameling, and (4) show that there has been a revival of interest in this craft in the United States in the last twenty-five years.

Method. The historical was followed in this study. Material was gathered from books, magazines, pamphlets, clipping files, tear sheets and photographs

from Mr. Winter, photographs from the Cleveland Museum of Art, visits to Art Galleries, conversations with Charles Bartley Jeffery (who is recognized as one of the leading enamellists in the United States), and personal experiences in executing enamels.

Findings. Vitreous enameling is one of the oldest arts in the history of man, yet little written material is to be found

on the history and development of this craft.

Few books have been written in the English language on the subject of vitreous enameling. Most of these are by English authors and were published before 1910. Many of these books are archaic, out of print, and in need of revision. Two of the four books of this period that are in Terre Haute libraries are in a very bad state of repair, and cannot be replaced.

Hundreds of enamels of earlier centuries that were on display in collections throughout the world were described by the authors writing on vitreous enameling before World War I. No material is available on the status of these enamels at present. Since many works of art in Europe, the British Isles, and Asia were destroyed, damaged, or carried away during the World Wars, a new study and listing of the enamels which survived should be made.

With the increase in leisure time offered by our way of life, more people are turning to the crafts for relaxation. Enameling is one of the most popular crafts because of the low cost of the necessary supplies and the fact that finished pieces can be executed in a short period of time.

Most of the literature relating to vitreous enameling is found in pamphlets, magazine articles and advertising circulars, which are not readily accessible to the average classroom or craft art teacher. There is a definite need for correlation of this literature for use by both craftsmen and teachers.

Our contemporary American enamelists have developed new processes and variations of traditional techniques which should be recorded for posterity; yet little material can be found which describes their achievements. A study of our American enamelists and the enamels they have executed should be carried out. These enamels, like those of past centuries, can retain their original beauty and color for untold centuries and deserve to be recognized

as the enamels of the past have been recognized.

Committee

Mr. E. J. Porter, Chairman
Dr. Schottenhamel
Mrs. Swander

Gratzer, Florence E. **A Study of Place Names in Lawrence County, Indiana.** August, 1957. 37 pp. No. 778.

Problem. The purpose of this study was (1) to compile the place names that have occurred in the history of Lawrence County, Indiana, excluding the names of geographical features, (2) to explain the origin of these names, and (3) to classify these findings indicating the type of names most generally used.

Method. Information contained in this study was derived from plat books and legal documents in the Lawrence County Courthouse, two county histories, newspapers, and personal interviews and correspondence with local historians and individuals connected with the founding and settlement of the localities.

Findings. As a result of this study, it was found that the greater number of places in Lawrence County, Indiana whose origins are known, are personal, descriptive, and numerous.

Of the total of seventy-four place names listed in this study, thirty-eight were derived from personal names. These personal names consisted of surnames or given names of local pioneers or their families, and names of personages other than Lawrence County pioneers.

There were twelve names descriptive of their localities and six humorous appellatives. The remaining place names were classified as transferred names with four examples, names derived from local flora and fauna with one

example, and those of unknown origin, twelve.

Most of the early settlers of Lawrence County were of English descent, and it appears that they displayed little imagination in naming the new settlements.

Although several Indian tribes occupied Indiana, only one Indian name appears in Lawrence County.

The only name in the county which indicates the presence of foreign immigration other than the English is that of the settlement of Bono, which was named for the Frenchman, Pierre Bono, or Bonneau, of Vincennes.

Four place names came from the names of war heroes: Marion Township (General Francis Marion), Perry Township (Admiral Oliver Hazard Perry), Mitchell (General O. M. Mitchell), and Lawrence County (Captain James Lawrence).

There is an absence of idealistic and Biblical names. Only one name has a literary source. These two facts reflect the life of the early settlers as being a practical one.

Committee

Dr. Schick, Chairman
Miss McBeth
Dr. Smock

Lattin, Bill D. **Francesca da Rimini in Dramatic Literature.** July, 1957. 80pp. No. 776.

Problem. This study was concerned with the Francesca story as it has been depicted in the drama. The different dramas were compared and contrasted one with the other and with the actual historical happenings.

Method. The historical records and early accounts of the tragedy as contained in Dante's *Divine Comedy* (ca. 1310), Giovanni Boccaccio's *Il Comenta sopra la Divina Commedia* (1373), and Battaglini's *Memorie Storiche di*

Rimini e de' Suoi Signore (1789) were examined. The facts determined from them were compared with the plays.

Findings. Francesca da Rimini by Johann Ludwig Uhland (1807) was never completed. Its fragmentary scenes show Dante at a much older age than he actually was, and they present Francesca about to be married to Paolo, the wrong brother.

Francesca da Rimini by Silvio Pellico (1818) presents only the latter events of the story, but makes no mention of the child of Francesca or the wife and children of Paolo.

Francesca da Rimini by George Henry Boker (1855) compresses the fourteen years the marriage actually lasted into five days. The murdering brother, Giovanni, is made a sympathetic character. The hitherto unimportant character of the informer is built to prominence and given to the jester, Pepe. Paolo is made a scholar rather than a warrior. Dante is referred to as possessing mature talents, whereas he was actually ten years old at the time of the wedding. The fathers of Paolo and Francesca are alive throughout the entire action, although they actually died before the murder took place. The child of Francesca and the wife and children of Paolo are ignored.

Francesca da Rimini by Martin Greif (1892) could not be obtained for study, but a summary of the plot is given.

Paolo and Francesca by Stephen Phillips (1899) compresses the action into about a week's time. The character of the informer is given to Lucrezia, a widowed cousin of Giovanni and Paolo. The fathers of Paolo and Francesca, the child of Francesca and the wife and children of Paolo are ignored.

Francesca da Rimini. Gabriele d'Annunzio (1901) compresses the action into about a year's time. The character of the informer is given to Malatestino, a vicious younger brother of Giovanni and Paolo. The fathers of Paolo and Francesca, and the wife of Paolo are referred to, but the child of Francesca and the children of Paolo are

ignored. Extensive historical documentation is included in the play

Francesca da Rimini by Francis Marion Crawford (1902) is made carefully authentic. The character of the informer is given to Concordia, the daughter of Francesca and Giovanni.

Only one mention could be found of **Francesca da Rimini** by G. A. Cesareo (1906).

The plays most admired by critics — those of Boker, Phillips, and d'Annunzio are not accurate historically. Accuracy in historical detail seems not a necessity for an artistic creation.

Committee

Dr. Masters, Chairman
Dr. Rohrig
Dr. Schick

Milazzo, Tony C. **A Comparative Study of the Social Competence and Economic Efficiency of Educable Mentally Retarded Adults Who Attended Special Classes and a Matched Group Who Attended Regular School Classes.** August, 1957. 43 pp. No. 780.

Problem. It was the purpose of this study to compare two groups of educable mentally retarded adults in order to determine their social competence and economic efficiency. The individuals in each group were at least 18 years of age, were apparently free from multiple handicaps, and their rates of mental growth were represented by quotients between 50 and 72. The difference between the groups, wherein lies the basis for this investigation, is that one group had attended a special class for the educable mentally retarded while the other group though equally eligible had not attended such a class but had remained in the regular classroom.

Method. The personal interview was followed in this study. There were three series of interviews in all. The first series of interviews was with those individuals who composed the special class sample. The second series of interviews, using the same questions and procedures, was with those individuals in

the non-special class sample. The final series of interviews was with the employers of all the individuals from both the groups. In the first two series of interviews information was found as to: (1) marital status, (2) armed forces participation, (3) conformity to standards of society, (4) church attendance, (5) present employment, (6) past employment, (7) spare time activity, and (8) what individuals wished they had received from their schooling.

The interviews with employers about their employees were guided by questions concerned with these areas: (1) whether or not the person was actually employed, (2) position, (3) type of work, (4) working strengths, (5) working weaknesses, (6) attitudes toward hiring others of similar ability, and (7) salary.

Findings. Persons who have attended special classes seem to be significantly more socially competent and economically efficient than those educable mentally retarded individuals who remained in regular classrooms.

Persons who have attended a special class seem to be more stable. That is to say they do not move from place to place as much as those who have attended regular grades. Further, when special class people do change residence they often change to better environments.

It seems that the special class people conform to standards of society much better as borne out by the number of arrests in the non-special class group as compared to none in the other group.

The special class group is more able by far to support themselves than is the non-special group.

Employers are willing to hire persons with the ability of those who attended special classes.

Employers place more emphasis on working characteristics such as: getting along with others, dependability, honesty, perseverance, etc., than on actual job training itself.

Committee

Dr. R. B. Porter, Chairman
Mr. Jordan
Dr. Lautenschlager

Nale, Iona Hershberger. **An Analysis of Nautical Influence on Ole Rolvaag's Fiction.**

Problem. This study was an original research in the technique of Ole Rolvaag, a Norwegian-American interpretive author of fiction, concerning the Norwegian immigrants on the Great Central Plains. The researcher wished to reveal through the presentation and analysis of the author's most graphic and/or most numerous allusions how a nautical element became a distinguishing characteristic of Rolvaag's style.

Method. The translated fiction of Rolvaag was studied, and situations in which this nautical descriptive element was used were analyzed. Factors in the author's life which were ostensibly contributory to his using nautical reference were noted, but it was not the intention of the researcher to attempt to prove source or origin of technique.

Findings. Rolvaag was a very capable seaman for five years before he left Norway to come to America. He drew from his long nautical experience to enrich his fiction with nautical imagery, nautical terminology, and nautical reference.

The word "boat," or a synonym of the word, figuratively used, was noted in twenty-seven instances to refer to seventeen different items: a situation, a caravan, a cradle, oxen, a sleigh, five different people, a congregation, a church, a boy's life, a fictitious gold company, a sudden fortune, a train, and a reaper.

Vivid accounts of activity on land in terms of transportation at sea were presented. Thirteen features, characteristic of ocean and sea, were presented as illustrative of Rolvaag's vivid nautical allusions; these features were: undertow, wake, wash and backwash, surge, ebb, current, breakers, billows, surf, waves, purl, drifting, and floating.

Thirty-six comparisons to the ocean and sea were noted in the fiction. Eight of these were comparisons to the prairie. Seven comparisons expressed six different moods: melancholy, frustration, helplessness, contentment, gloom and

mystery. Other items to which ocean and sea were compared were: a venture, World War I, intoxication, stars, flames, cultural gap, faces, the sky, atmosphere, blood, eyes, light, tables, and clouds of locusts.

People were compared to gulls in seven instances; canvas-topped schooners were compared to gulls in one instance. Numerous direct references to life in Norway and life on the ocean were included in the fiction.

Rolvaag's consistent use of nautical imagery, nautical terminology, and nautical reference creates a distinctive individuality in his style.

Committee
Dr. Bash, Chairman
Miss McBeth
Dr. Smock

Piety, Rowena C. **A Survey of Job Opportunities for the Educable Mentally Retarded in Anderson, Indiana.** August, 1957. 59 pp. No 781.

Problem. The purpose of this study was to (1) investigate the general attitude of business and industry personnel toward the hiring of persons who have attended a special school for mentally-retarded children; (2) furnish this information to the special-class teacher for planning the educational program so that the mentally-retarded child might be better prepared for the obtaining and performing of specific jobs; (3) provide the school administrators with information as to the types of jobs available to mentally-retarded individuals; and (4) serve as a guide for employment for the mentally-retarded child who has exceeded the age for school attendance.

Method The questionnaire and interview methods were followed in this study. Two hundred ten questions were mailed to the business and industry personnel in Anderson, Indiana. From the returned post-card questionnaires, a list was compiled of those personnel managers who were willing to be interviewed for further information. Twenty-four questionnaires were returned, and

eleven personnel managers were interviewed.

Findings. Industry and business do not seem especially interested in recruiting employees through the schools.

The lack of interest by personnel managers would not be especially reflected on The Exceptional Children's School, as the questionnaire form letter was sent from The Anderson City Schools, and was signed by the city school superintendent.

The small companies in Anderson seem to show a greater interest in employment of these children than do the larger ones, so they would appear to be the place to start a cooperative program.

Of the personnel managers who were interviewed, many seemed interested and anxious to know more specifically the capabilities of the mentally retarded.

Though the number is small, there are enough interested personnel managers to provide a good start for job placement.

Committee
Dr. R. B. Porter, Chairman
Mr. Hardaway
Dr. Lautenschlager

Shirley, Betty Laverne. **A History of Oakland City College.** August, 1957. 378 pp. No. 779.

Problem. The purpose of this study was to write a more nearly accurate history of Oakland College than has previously been written.

Method. The research method was used. Materials were secured from the General Baptist records, county records, records of Oakland City College, newspaper files, personal and business correspondence, denominational histories, personal interviews. These materials were analyzed and compiled.

Findings. Oakland City College is the visible outgrowth of the dreams and ideals of the leaders of the General Baptist denomination. The dreams of an institution of higher learning were made evident by the plans for a "Seminary of

Learning" in 1838 and a General Baptist Academy in 1857, the establishment of the Oakland Institute in 1866, and the plans for a college at Evansville, Indiana, 1880; all of these attempts were failures, but they served as stepping stones to keep the educational project alive.

Oakland City College began as a physical organization in 1885, when construction began on the first college building; this building was completed in 1891. An addition to the building was completed in 1901. As the college grew, the following were added to the campus: the dormitory, Wheatley Hall, 1911; central heating plant, 1915; Student Memorial Hall, the library-gymnasium, 1922; an addition to the dormitory, 1927; five barracks were received from the government in 1946 to be used for housing; another building, the Annex was received from the government in 1946 for classroom space, and it was remodeled into a cafe, the Oaks, in 1948; and Stinson Hall, started in 1955 and completed in 1957.

The greatest problem of the college has been one of inadequate finance; this has been the result of a lack of interest of the people, economic conditions, and the pressure of meeting state requirements for accreditation as a standard college.

During its years of actual operation, the college has been served by four presidents—Dr. A. D. Williams, Dr. W. P. Dearing, Dr. James E. Cox, and Dr. Onis G. Chapman. Major J. B. Cox served seven years as president pro tem.

The college curriculum has gradually developed so that the following degrees are offered: Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science in Education, and Bachelor of Science in Elementary Education. An organized program for teacher-training has been in existence since the founding of the college. The theological department was maintained irregularly until 1897; since that time it has been a regular department of the college. At one time, an industrial arts program was maintained which offered work in various vocational fields.

Following the depression of the

1930's and World War II, the college holdings were greatly decreased. Since 1948 the college has been able to secure a more stable financial condition and has experienced a steady growth. In 1956, Oakland City College became a charter member of the Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges, an organization designed to aid small colleges in meeting regional accrediting requirements.

Committee

Dr. Scheik, Chairman,
Dr. Gemmecke
Mr. Hardaway

Wolfe, Cynthia N. **A Study of Imagery in the Poetry of Edward Taylor.** March, 1957. 83 pp. No. 775.

Problem. The purpose of this study was to examine Edward Taylor's poetic imagery. In this examination certain general patterns of Taylor's thought were revealed.

Summary. Chapter I sketches Taylor's position within the intellectual framework of his society. Although as a poet in colonial New England Taylor was in many ways unique, his interest in poetry as a method for conveying truth was supported by educational theories of the period; his obvious debt to Herbert was in accordance with Puritan admiration for that poet. Chapter II deals with the substance of Taylor's images and their use in connection with his religious concepts. Taylor's individualism has been overemphasized by many critics of his work; in the light of English devotional poetry he is on the whole conventional, and in terms of Puritan theology perfectly orthodox. Despite the occasional appearance of unusual figures, the **Sacramental Meditations** reveal a dominant concern with materials common to much religious verse—light, fire, food and feasting, natural growth, and clothing. The numerous references to scents and music which have provoked doubt concerning Taylor's religious views may equally well derive from Biblical sources. Almost all the **Meditations** conclude with a se-

quence of request and promise, Taylor's bargain with Christ, which may be regarded as a reflection of Puritan covenant theology. These same patterns of language and thought appear in the **Meditations** which have been printed since the appearance of T. H. Johnson's edition.

The allegorical structure of **God's Determinations** suggested to Taylor a source for imagery almost completely absent from the **Meditations**, that of human relations. The long poem presents considerable variety in its figures, whereas the **Meditations**, when read successively, appear very repetitive. This constant re-working of the same materials suggests that the **Meditations** were purely personal poems. Furthermore, Taylor's frequent and intense appeal for divine aid in the revitalization of his poetic powers, his fondness for meiotic words, and the high incidence of provincialisms, all indicate a humility of character and privacy of aim consistent with his desire not to publish his work.

Chapter IV assesses Taylor's handling of his figures in the total fabric of his poems; the study indicates that:

- (1) What literary critics have termed "metaphysical" imagery was a completely absorbed manner of expression for Taylor.
- (2) He did not possess a constant sensitivity for the matching of his images to his subject-matter.
- (3) In too many instances he did not have a firm grasp upon the logical framework which should underlie poetry employing this type of imagery.

The texts of several of Taylor's poems, examples both of his success and failure, are discussed in detail with reference to these judgments. The Appendices include these texts, as well as lists of image-material used in the study.

Committee

Dr. Schick, Chairman
Dr. Cohen
Dr. Laban Smith

Book Reviews

Techniques of Guidance, Revised Edition. By Arthur E. Traxler. New York. Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1957, pp. 374.

The interval between the two editions of this remarkable book, **Techniques of Guidance**, is twelve years. Upon a detailed and carefully formulated set of scientific hypotheses and procedures, Traxler carefully integrates the contributions made to the guidance field by clinical psychology, psychotherapy, projective techniques, and group dynamics. The revision is thorough and complete in every respect.

Chapter I is a brief, clear treatment of Guidance-background and Orientation. Such topics as meaning, influences creating guidance programs, staff organizations, costs and the relation of guidance to education in a democracy are discussed in masterful fashion. If every teacher, administrator, counselor, and board member had this type of orientation and basic understanding today, confusion in this complex area would be greatly reduced.

With the above introduction these topics follow in this sequence: "Essentials in Launching a Guidance Program"; "Opportunities for Young People"; "Kinds of Information Needed: Use of Interviews and Questionnaires in Collecting Information"; "Appraisal of Aptitudes for Guidance Purposes"; "Evaluation of Achievement in a Guidance Program"; "Appraisal of Personal Qualities and Interests: Tests and Inventories"; "Appraisal of Personal Qualities: Rating Scales, Behavior Descriptions, Anecdotal Records and Sociometric Devices"; "Planning and Administering a Testing Program for Guidance Purposes"; "Scoring, Organizing and Reporting Test Results"; "Use of Results of Objective Tests in Improving the Instructional and Counseling Program of the School"; "Basic Principles and Main Types of Pupil Personnel Records"; "Cumulative Records in a Guidance Program"; "Reports to the Homes"; "Case-Study Procedures in Guidance"; "The Role of the Teacher

in Guidance"; "Follow-up of Students and School Leaders"; "Guidance in the Adjustment of Individuals"; "Counseling as a Learning Function"; "Group Work in Guidance"; and "Reading Resources for Guidance Workers".

In format the book is unusual because of the size of pages, center headings, charts, illustrative record forms of all types, annotated lists of texts, exhaustive, accurate, recent bibliographies, samples of questionnaires, and related discipline areas of reading resources for guidance workers. One can truly believe the statement in the foreword that "more than 10,000 details by actual count were checked."

This is almost a one volume text-encyclopedia or handy reference library for administrator, counselor, teacher, or any professional person working in guidance and related disciplines.

It will be some time before another author makes a more scholarly revision of a former text in the general guidance area. To both Dr. Traxler and to Harper and Brothers, those of us who teach prospective counselors extend our sincere gratitude for this comprehensive, practical, and professional contribution.

Helen Ederle

Associate Professor of Education
Indiana State Teachers College

Secondary Education for American Democracy. By Robert S. Gilchrist, Wilbur H. Dutton, and William L. Wrinkle. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1957, pp. 418+xv, \$5.00.

The failure of those of us in professional education to define carefully the various courses that constitute our field has caused all sorts of combinations of subject matter to spring up. Practically every teacher defines his course in a different way and there is often little similarity between courses bearing the same name. Textbook publishers have attempted to meet this situation by publishing texts which are broad enough in scope to meet the needs of many dif-

ferent courses. Courses bearing such names as "Introduction to Education," "Principles of Education," and "Modern Secondary Education" belong to the type described, and books such as **Secondary Education for American Democracy** are published to be used as texts in these courses.

This book can be evaluated only in terms of how well it fulfills the purposes of such courses as were described in the preceding paragraph.

The authors of this book have no axe to grind, no predetermined position to defend. Their objective is to give the student a comprehensive over-view of the development and present status of secondary education in our country, and they have succeeded in meeting this objective. It might be said by way of criticism that in their attempt to provide "something for everyone" they have glossed over many areas which need further development. However, a thorough or comprehensive treatment is not possible in texts for exploratory or introductory courses.

The range of subject matter is great. Included are these: aims and objectives of secondary education; nature of the learner; historical backgrounds; curriculum; methods of teaching; guidance, to mention a few of the many topics which are treated. Each of these is presented in such a manner as to give the reader a broad view of the principles, practices, and problems of the area.

The style of the authors is clear, lucid, and forceful. The text is relatively free of the jargon and verbosity that writers of books of this sort can easily become guilty of. Little effort is wasted in unnecessary discussion. However, this reviewer found the device of quoting from imaginary characters to illustrate points out of keeping with the general succinctness of the work. This technique was used sparingly, however; and generally ideas are driven home with well ordered precision.

This book is a revision of an edition published in 1942. It has accomplished what second editions often fail to do

it has improved on the earlier edition. Not only have the content and the method of presentation been improved, but the data have been brought up to date and newer ideas included. The format, typography, reference lists, and summaries are also improved.

This book does not provide any new insight into how children grow and learn; it does not present any new or startling discoveries or theories of education; it makes no great contribution to the literature of education. But its authors do not claim that the text does these things. Theirs is the claim to present a usable, readable text for courses in "introduction to" or "principles of" secondary education. And in doing this **Secondary Education for American Democracy** does make a contribution.

Tom C. Venable
Associate Professor of Education
Indiana State Teachers College

Teaching Science in the Secondary Schools. By R. Will Burnett. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1957, pp. 382 + xii, \$5.25.

This book should be a valuable contribution to the science teacher who desires information regarding theory and practice of science teaching on the secondary level.

The book consists of five parts. Each part presents areas of problems and articles designed to be helpful to the science teacher interested in developing a theoretical insight and practical knowledge and skill in science teaching.

Part I begins with a statistical treatment of science enrollments with resulting problems involving technological and social growth and responsibility. A brief view of problems arising from changes in aspects and teaching is shown as well as enumerating a few broad goals. A comparison of two general methods of science teaching is given as well, recognizing the importance of research and criticisms which are directed at conventional science teaching.

Part II as a beginning has a considerable amount of educational history with science emphasis which can be found in many history books. However interesting comparisons are given. Also in Part II some excellent principles of learning which apply to science teaching are given in an interesting and informative manner.

Part III is perhaps the most valuable portion of the book. This section pertains to the improvement of classroom practices. The reasons for introduction of newer patterns of course offerings are reviewed and the extent to which organization for pupil needs are covered is also given.

The different approaches, field covering, generalizations, and the functional or problem, are presented in such a way as to give a clear understanding of each and its value to the teacher in curriculum planning. Many of the practices and procedures of the classroom are given with very rich examples for emphasis. This portion should be very valuable for many teachers.

Because of brevity the section pertaining to audio-visual materials does not fulfill the purpose it could have. A similar statement could be made regarding the evaluation area. Both of these do offer challenging reading.

Part IV is a series of different articles written by experienced teachers showing some practical applications of classroom practices as support for some of the theories presented earlier in the book.

Part V is primarily concerned with showing the growing problems faced by the science teacher to the profession as a whole.

It is the opinion of the writer that this book would be very good for use by science teachers desiring a stimulating challenge for self-improvement as well as improvement in science teaching.

Galen W. Bull
Assistant Professor of Chemistry
and Physics
Indiana State Teachers College

Planning Functional School Buildings. By Merle R. Sumption and Jack L. Landes. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957, pp. 302.

The authors have presented a thorough treatment of planning school plants. The experience of both authors in this field is reflected throughout the book.

Considerable emphasis is placed upon the school survey and its importance in determining school building needs. The authors endorse lay participation in the school survey to an extent that is seldom advocated by specialists in school plant planning.

The book is particularly strong in the clear description given of the various procedures or techniques that can be employed in determining school building needs. There are chapters on studying the community, projecting the educational program on the basis of community needs, predicting pupil population, appraising existing plant facilities, analyzing and utilizing financial resources, and developing the long-range program.

One of the best chapters in the book is the one on translating the school program into educational specifications. This particular chapter very clearly shows how to plan the secondary plant to house a particular program for a particular enrollment. Very few books on school plant planning provide such a concrete discussion on planning the plant to house the instructional program.

A thorough discussion on selecting and developing the school site is presented. The various factors that must be considered in selecting a school site are discussed taking into consideration such things as the age of children to be served, policies governing the maximum size of school, the master plan of the community, transportation of pupils, and the topography of the school district. Minimum sizes are presented for the different kinds of schools. Suggestions for the development of the school site are also presented.

Building types are discussed and illustrations of each type discussed are

presented. Types of buildings are discussed according to shape, major construction material, quality, fire-resistiveness, evaluation, and architectural style. Procedures are suggested to be used in selecting the type of building that a community should construct.

The last five chapters are devoted to a thorough discussion of the basic principles of school plant planning. The principles are modifiability, safety, healthfulness, efficiency, economy, and the appearance of the school plant. The chapter on efficiency and economy is particularly strong. The discussion on modifiability includes the traditional principles of expansibility, flexibility, and adaptability. A new principle, constructibility, has been added which some specialists in this field may feel is superfluous.

The book as a whole is a fine contribution to the literature on school plant planning. It is well illustrated and attractive. The print is arranged in columnar form on the pages, and the type size is suitable for a text. The suggested reading at the close of each chapter is current and well chosen.

Sumption and Landes are to be congratulated upon presenting to the profession a very practical and timely publication.

Fred Swalls
Professor of Education
Indiana State Teachers College

Education and the Social Order. By Blaine E. Mercer and Edwin R. Carr. New York: Rinehart, 1957, pp. 585 + viii, \$6.00.

Educational sociology is a new area of study. The first course in the subject came into being in 1907; the first book, in 1917; and the one and only journal, in 1927. It is not surprising, therefore, that there have been few books of merit written for the study of the subject. **Education and the Social Order** will take its place among the better of these.

The book is divided into fifteen sections, each of which deals with an area of concern to the student of educational sociology. Typical sections are, "Education and Social Change," "Class and Ethics Patterns and the School," and "Expectations and Realities." Each of these topics is introduced by a discussion by Mercer and Carr of the principles and problems involved. These introductory essays are followed by well-selected writings by authors who have demonstrated thorough knowledge and understanding of the subject. The articles have been wisely chosen to show the best thinking in the field and, where controversy exists, the variety of opinion is to be found.

I believe this presentation and organization to be excellent; other textbook authors would do well to consider such a construction of their materials. A collection of the writings of many authors has verve that the work of an individual can never possess. These essays

having been previously published rather than commissioned for this book gives them added strength of having already proved themselves valuable contributions to the literature of education.

The selection of authors whose works were chosen includes Henry Steele Commager, W. Lloyd Warner, Robert M. Hutchins, Margaret Meade, James B. Conant, and John Dewey—to mention some of the more familiar names. But even those article by the less well-known authors prove to be of excellent quality. Further, the essays are chosen so as to give a balanced, orderly view of the problems presented rather than the more popular ranting of the extremist. As an instance, the "attacks on professional education" section uses the writings of the more intellectual Robert M. Hutchins and Bernard Iddings Bell to support the neo-traditionalist view rather than the scape-goating tirades of Albert Lynd or Arthur E. Bestor. In all areas, this balanced, thoughtful, dignified approach is maintained.

Perhaps I am over-enthusiastic about this volume. However, I find so much to admire in it the few minor things which seem improvable fade into insignificance. I believe this is an excellent contribution to the literature of education and one which will be emulated by later works. It deserves to be.

Tom C. Venable
Associate Professor of Education
Indiana State Teachers College

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